Putting on an event

Track and field promoter Fred Lebow thought of a novel event—a mile foot race down 5th Avenue, a plush residential section of New York. He envisioned the race beginning at 82nd Street at the Metropolitan Museum of Art and ending at 62nd Street. What a picture! What a sight for television! The best milers in the world dashing down the middle of 5th Avenue framed on the right by Central Park and on the left by the avenue’s most elegant apartment buildings. “Excuse me!” his best friend exclaimed. “Are you totally out of your mind! There’s no way the city will let you do it. Even if they do, who will be interested in such a race? Certainly not spectators, definitely not television! What world-class miler would think about racing a mile on the road? You’re nuts ... you’ve totally lost it!”

Those final few words presented the challenge. He would do it! He picked September 26 as the date and called Parks Commissioner Gordon Davis for approval. “I can’t give my approval for such a race until you talk with the residents,” Davis explained.

Two weeks later Fred exchanged his favorite sweatsuit for his most presentable outfit and stood in front of the 5th Avenue residents’ association—thirty-four somber people, mostly women. He made his presentation.

“No way!” a stout woman in the back of the room shouted. “Go somewhere else. 5th Avenue is not the only street in New York City!”

“Ah, but it’s the most charismatic street,” Fred countered. “The mile race is the most charismatic event of track and field. An elegant crowd follows it, not the beer-drinking crowd that follows parades. A mile race will tie up your street for only a short time. Please, give me a chance to show you what a great event this will be.” The residents discussed it among themselves and finally called for a vote. It was 32 to 2 in Fred’s favor.

Armed with their approval he headed off to the Police Department seeking their approval. “No, no, no!” said the police chief shaking, his head. “I have most of my men committed to the South African rugby match on that date.” Fred made a phone call to Commissioner Davis who in turn persuaded the Police Chief to reverse his decision. So far, so good!

That summer:

Fred was in Oslo, Norway, where most of the world’s top milers were gathering for the Oslo Dream Mile. The milers loved his idea, especially Steve Ovett, the winner of the Dream Mile and world record holder. With Ovett committed, it wasn’t difficult to convince twenty-five elite runners from eight different countries to participate. Having landed
the athletes, Fred now needed a
network television contract and sponsors. The
travel and hotel bill for all those elite
athletes would be expensive. As well,
several of the world-class runners had
demanded appearance and incentive fees.

Fred dangled Ovett as the carrot in
front of ABC. The television company
jumped at the opportunity to schedule the
race for “Wide World of Sports.” Fred
now began his search for a sponsor. Pepsi
agreed to sponsor the event for $175,000
on the condition that it was named the
Pepsi Challenge 5th Avenue Mile. Fred
agreed.

He now began work on the print
advertising campaign. Things were indeed
moving along quite well. Confident, he
planned a trip to Stockholm, where he
would run the marathon.

In Stockholm one month before the
mile:
Fred was warming up for the race
when he heard his name over the
loudspeaker.

“Please come to the officials’ table,”
the voice said. He jogged through the
crowd to the starting line. One of his aides
from New York was trying to reach him
by phone. “The police have canceled the
5th Avenue Mile!” the frantic voice ex-
claimed.

“What?” Fred responded in disbelief.
“Impossible!”

“No, it’s not,” replied his aide. “One
of the newspapers wrote that we expected
1 million spectators instead of 100,000.
The police refuse to control a million
people for us. They canceled the event.”

Within six hours Fred was on a plane
for New York. By the time he got there,
the police chief had notified all
departments that the event was off. Fred
dug deep into his list of New York
contacts, cashed in all his IOUs, and
eventually took his plea to the mayor’s
office. The event was reinstated.

A few days later Fred got word from
the International Amateur Athletic
Federation (IAAF), the world governing
body for track and field, that it would not
sanction the 5th Avenue Mile. “It
represents gross commercialism,” IAAF
President Adriaan Paulen, an elderly
Dutchman, proclaimed to the press in
Sarajevo, Yugoslavia. “Athletes who
participate will jeopardize their amateur
status.” Within hours athletes were
withdrawing from the race. Fred tried to
reach Paulen by phone, but he was on his
way to Rome for another IAAF meeting.
Exasperated, Fred caught the next flight to
Rome.

In Rome:
Fred waited in the lobby of Paulen’s
hotel and finally spotted him coming
through the side entrance. “Mr. Paulen,
sir! Please, may I speak with you?” Fred
presented Paulen with a silver apple as a
token of New York City hospitality.
Paulen accepted gracefully but explained
that he thought the 5th Avenue Mile was a
bad joke. Dejected and exhausted, Fred
found a hotel room for the night. He
would try again tomorrow.

The next day Paulen still refused to
discuss the matter. Then Fred got some
good news—the IAAF had held an
election and Paulen was out! Primo
Nebiolo of Italy was now IAAF president.
Fred cashed in a few more IOUs to get a
meeting with Nebiolo. “I love the idea of
the 5th Avenue Mile,” Nebiolo told him.
“It will be a great promotional event for
track and field.” Fred was back in business.

He flew back to New York to learn that Ovett had suddenly canceled due to illness. “What else can happen?” he sighed. He nervously broke the news about Ovett to ABC. But ABC agreed that a remarkable group of milers were racing. ABC would still televise the event.

Aftermath:
An estimated crowd of 100,000 and a national TV audience watched the race. Encouraged by his success Fred soon put together an international circuit of city-street mile races in Rome, Paris, Dublin, and Toronto and traveled from country to country overseeing each race. On one of his trips he heard that International Management Group (IMG), a sports marketing agency headed by Mark McCormack was planning a takeover of the mile road racing circuit. IMG had already signed many of the top runners, had its own television programming capacity, and was in the process of tying up an endorsement and financial partnership with The Athletics Congress, the name of the U.S. governing body for track and field at the time.

IMG was dangerously close to becoming a monopoly. McCormack was in a position to control participation of his clients in events and this could collapse the very foundation of road racing. Fred and his associates around the world had invested a great deal of time setting up the mile circuit, and now, in one quick swoop, they were about to lose it all. His adrenaline flowed. Once again it was time for the great Fred Lebow to move into action.

This scenario is based on experiences described by Fred Lebow in his book Inside the world of big-time marathoning (New York: Raswon Associates, 1984)

Marketing success depends on your ability to negotiate the resources you need from those who control them. You saw numerous examples of resource negotiations in the opening case. As you read this case you probably felt like you were watching one of those late-night weight loss commercials. The kind where you constantly hear, “But wait, there’s more!” Just when you think there can’t possibly be another free and valuable gift, you hear those words once more, “But wait, there’s more!” This is what it often feels like when you are marketing a sports product. So many factors affect your efforts that just when you think you have everything under control, you will find there is always more. Governmental agents, athlete agents, the athletes themselves, regulatory bodies, media, and competitors all have an impact on what you are trying to do.
The intent of this chapter is to provide you with an understanding of the nature, scope and structure of the sport organization and how it fits within the environment. This will help you organize your thinking about how to gather the resources you need for a successful marketing campaign. We begin by discussing a conceptual structure of a generic sport organization and how it fits within its environment. Then we will take a look at some specific structures for high profile sports organizations.

Specific topics covered in this chapter

How to think about a sport organization

You probably think of an organization in terms of the people — managers, secretaries, the ticket sales force, the coaches, the media relations folk, the marketing department and so on. It is fairly natural to think this way because people are tangible and it’s easy to see and describe their function. But from a marketing viewpoint it is more useful to think of a sport organization as consisting of a collection of behaviors. In the case of sports, the organizations are often very small and one person may undertake many different functions. In the opening case study, for example, Fred Lebow had a product idea — a mile race down 5th Avenue. The resources he needed to do this included the runners, television exposure, police support, 5th Avenue resident support, etc. His organization was very small — himself and a small office staff. Lebow did not fit into any neat category of marketing manager, administrator, sales representative or public relations. He performed all these tasks. It is for this reason that it is better to think of a sports organization in terms of behaviors rather than staff labels.

If you think in terms of behaviors it is then possible to describe the boundaries of your organization in terms of resource control. The boundary of your sport organization ends at that point where your control over the activities of others diminishes and their control over you begins (Figure 2.3). It is at this point that you venture into your environment and you become vulnerable to forces that are external to your organization. In other words, the activities of your sport organization are not self-contained. They are bound up with the environment. Your organization is loosely coupled with many other organizations or other people in your environment. The combination of your own organization and others in the environment with whom you have an exchange relationship, or with whom you desire an exchange relationship is referred to as the organization set.
There are three important concepts to acquiring and maintaining resources. These are effectiveness, environment and constraints (Figure 2.2).

Efficiency is simply looking for ways to do what you are doing better. You could be doing the wrong thing and if you focus on efficiency you could end up doing the wrong thing better. Effectiveness on the other hand means that you are concerned with the best why to interact with others who have the resources you desire. It is a reflection of your belief of the usefulness of your activities. Effectiveness is important because as you saw in the opening case study, your environment is not at all stable. Nor are you perceptions of the situation perfect because you create your own realities that are based on your own experiences and interpretations of environmental factors. There are many constraints to deal with. For example, one physical reality for Fred Lebow was that the police would only agree to manage a certain number of on-site spectators. If you are marketing women’s events there is the physical reality of lack of media interest in all but very unique women’s events. If you are in charge of sports marketing for a college sports program there is the Title IX constraint of not giving more marketing attention to men’s basketball than women’s basketball (even though this is frequently done). As a sports marketer you must be aware of these constraints and be prepared to manipulate them in your favor.

Interdependence and dependence
You will have two types of interrelationships with your environment (Figure 2.3). You are interdependent with others when you are exchanging resources with others in your environment. The resources you are exchanging are equally valuable to the partners participating in the exchange.

You are dependent when the exchange needs are unequal – that is; you have a higher need for the resource someone else has compared with the need this other individual has for your resource. For example, in most countries football tickets (soccer, rugby or American football) are highly desirable and therefore cost more than a women’s basketball game. The balance of power is in favor of football marketers but in favor of the consumers for women’s basketball marketers. Interdependence exists in three forms — symbiotic, competitive and a combination of symbiotic and competitive. It can have both a positive and negative impact on your organization and the degree of interdependence varies according to the availability of resources relative to the demand. Throughout this text we will discuss many different types of interdependent situations that encompass all three forms.

Dependence constrains your behavior and results from an asymmetric interdependence. One partner in the exchange has greater control than the other and can enforce demands. We see this occurring in the relationship
between television and sports when television schedules dictate game times and the structure of the competition. Your dependence on another organization or individual depends upon how important the resource is to you, the basis of the control (ownership, regulations, control without owning, or rules of allocation and use), and the extent to which there are few alternatives available to you (referred to as resource concentration). An effective sport organization satisfies the demands of its environment and uncertainty is greatest for those sports organizations that are operating within an environment of intermediate concentration. In this climate there are usually insufficient participants vying for the same resource to affect your ability to operate successfully, but too many to coordinate thus minimizing potential high dependence situations.

How do you determine your organization set? The next two chapters will provide you with greater insights into what your organization set might look like in terms of its membership. You can think about your organization set in three levels.

- You can think of it as an entire system of interconnected groups that are all interacting in some way
- You can include only those environmental groups with whom you deal with directly
- Or you can think of it in terms of your perceived environment. This is referred to as your enacted environment and is simply a construction of your environment according to what you believe to be your most important resource exchange partners. Most sports marketers probably think in terms of their enacted environment because it is the most manageable. The problem with this approach is that you could underestimate the importance of some interdependent partners.

You will find a guide on how to determine your organization set in Figure 2.4. The chapters in this section will provide you with some clues as to what your environmental forces might consist of. The sports industry consists of three broad interlocking sectors (Figure 2.1). One sector involves servicing the participants by providing them with representational services, skill enhancement and social opportunities and athletic clothing and equipment. A second sector focuses on staging the events and providing consumption opportunities for both participants and spectators. A third sector services the sport itself by adding value for consumers. It includes allied entertainment such as gambling, video games television and talk show and trains the professional who are involved in running the business side of sport. Within this sector you will also find a
group of individuals who preserve the sport’s heritage for future generations.

You may find yourself working within an organization that focuses on any one or a combination of these three sectors. Within these three sectors the organization that has the highest profile is the club, team or athlete that draws spectator interest. These clubs, teams and athletes typically form coalitions of leagues (e.g. the National Football League), sports (e.g. University athletic departments and the United States Olympic Committee), and associations (e.g. the Professional Golf Association is a coalition of individual athletes).

In the United States University football and basketball teams, and professional football, basketball, hockey and baseball teams have the highest profile. During Olympic years the Olympic team also becomes a high profile team. The Professional Golf Association (PGA) is a high profile niche market collection of athletes.

The business structure

Club, team and athletes can embody either, or a combination of, amateur, recreational, or professional athletes. The business structure of the organizations associated with these sports are very different in structure but they all have a common core that includes a management side and a labor side. The output is the physical contest (Figure 2.2).

Teams, clubs and athletes, which we will refer to as the independent sport unit), must cooperate with each other in order to produce the contest. These independent sport units cooperate by forming coalitions — leagues, tours, clusters of clubs consisting of the same sport (e.g. National Governing Bodies), clusters of sports that serve a special purpose (e.g. Olympic Sports that are governed by the United States Olympic Committee (USOC), or university athletic departments that govern collegiate sports); clusters of clusters (e.g. the National Collegiate Athletic Association (NCAA) that consists of University Athletic Departments. Figure 2.4 illustrates how a coalition can be nest within another coalition. In the example shown in Figure 2.4 member clubs (independent sport units at level 1) form the National Governing Body for Gymnastics (a coalition). All the National Governing Bodies for Olympic and Pan American sport (among others) now become independent sport units in the National Olympic Committees (a second level coalition). The National Governing Bodies for each Olympic Sport become the independent sport units for the National Olympic Committee (a level 3
coalition). Finally, at level 4 the National Olympic Committees and the International Sport Federations throughout the world become the independent sport units in a very powerful coalition called the International Olympic Committee (IOC). The IOC owns the Olympic Games and all the associated Olympic symbols – one of the premier international competitions in the world.

**Insert Figure 2.4**

It is often difficult to describe the exact role of each coalition cluster. In some situations coalitions exist to allocate territory and athletes. In others they simply exist to maximize and allocate revenues. However, they can be collapsed into three types: professional team coalitions, professional athlete coalitions, and custodian coalitions. As you can see in Figure 2.5, a single sport (in this instance, the sport of golf) may have several different types of coalitions each serving the needs of specific segments of the market.

**Insert Figure 2.5**

**Professional Team Coalitions.** This type of coalition consists of a contractual relationship between several clubs or teams of one single sport. The teams within the coalition may organize themselves as a private corporation, public corporation, Subchapter S corporation, ordinary partnership, limited partnership, and even sole proprietorship. A commissioner oversees league operations. There are three categories of operations:

1. activities that are predominantly controlled by the teams or clubs
2. activities that are based upon collective league decisions
3. activities that are governed jointly by the league and the clubs

Individual clubs, which are the independent sport units of a league, generally determine the day-to-day operations. In baseball, for instance, the league controls regular season, play-off, and World Series broadcast rights. Each club determines ticket prices and retains all profits from concessions. Generally member teams agree to share broadcasting revenues, gate receipts, and league merchandising. Teams pay player salaries and facility overhead costs; they also provide uniforms and equipment. The league trains and employs referees and umpires. A key feature of a league coalition is that athletes are analogous to employees in that they receive a salary.
Athlete Coalitions. Athlete coalitions exist where participants compete as individuals rather than on teams. Tennis and golf are two examples. To develop a salable product athletes will establish a circuit or tour where they support themselves by competing for prize money provided by event owners. Successful athlete coalitions attempt to organize prize money so that as many athletes as possible can make a reasonable living. Usually the best athletes have the opportunity to make the most money, although in the case of golf and tennis, lesser-skilled athletes can make more than the top athletes can by playing in a larger number of tournaments. The key feature of an athlete coalition is that the athletes are analogous to independent contractors.

An example of an athlete coalition is the PGA TOUR. The PGA TOUR, Inc., is a tax-exempt membership organization whose purpose it is to regulate, promote, and improve the business of professional tournament golf. All revenues earned by the TOUR (exclusive of operating expenses, reasonable reserves, and so on) must enhance the profession and the business climate for current and future members. In other words, the TOUR’s main job is to help professional tournament golfers earn a better living (Figure 2.6).

Insert Figure 2.6

Linking individual events maximizes income for the athletes (see Highlight 2.2). In the case of the PGA TOUR players assign their individual television rights to the TOUR. The TOUR then packages these rights and sells them at the best rights fees the PGA TOUR can negotiate (Figure 2.7). The PGA TOUR then uses the majority of those funds (less the amount needed to administer the TOUR) to lure sponsors by offering them events in which the purses are large enough to attract a quality player field and consequently a better television contract. Technically, current players do not own the TOUR or its assets. The TOUR is really an ongoing entity, analogous to a trust that the “trustees” (the Tournament Policy Board) run for the benefit of current and future players.

Insert Figure 2.7
Insert Highlight 2.2

Custodian Coalitions. The prime purpose of this type of coalition is to ensure the survival of a specific form of amateur competition (see Highlight 2.3). The best known of this form of coalition is the USOC and the NCAA. The ISUs within the cluster each serve a different sport, like the national governing bodies (NGBs) of the USOC, or cluster of sports,
like the universities in the NCAA. Under certain conditions the coalition provides funding for its ISUs. The key feature here is that like children in a family, athletes require financial, coaching, and moral support during their growth (competitive) years. In the case of the USOC approximately 80 percent of all revenues are returned to direct support of the athletes and National Governing Bodies (Figure 2.8).

Figure 2.8
Insert Highlight 2.3

Whatever the format, the force binding a coalition cluster together is the belief that the whole is much larger than the sum of its parts. That is, the coalition has more power to maximize income than each ISU would have acting as an independent. Although it is sometimes possible to work as an independent, most ISUs must stay within their coalition cluster in order to survive. Members of a coalition cluster abdicate much of their autonomy and power to the coalition. The reasoning is that an optimum product requires cooperation, and an ISU is motivated to pursue its own interests. This would ultimately destroy the sport. The sport needs some form of control in order to curb this self-destructive behavior. In essence, coalition clusters exist to control scarce resources, maximize income, and ensure fair play.

There is one final aspect of coalition clusters you should note. One single sport may have several different types of coalition clusters. Some may act more as a league coalition and others as an athlete or custodian coalition. Golf, for example, has at least six major coalitions each servicing the specific needs of a group of individuals or clubs. Two are athlete coalitions, and the remainders are custodian coalitions (see Figure 2.5).

Marketing activities undertaken by coalitions are a becoming a very important key to their survival. However, as Juan Antonio Samaranch, President of the International Olympic Committee commented marketing must be undertaken with care.

"Marketing has become an increasingly important issue for all of us within the Olympic Movement. The revenues derived from television, sponsorship and general fund-raising help to provide the Movement with its financial independence. However, in developing these programs, we must always remember that it is sport that must control its destiny, not commercial interests. Every act of support for the Olympic Movement promotes peace, friendship and solidarity throughout the world". 9

You can learn more about the marketing structure of a large coalition like
the IOC by visiting their website
http://www.olympic.org/ioc/e/facts/marketing/mark_index_e.html

Business structure of team versus individual sports [Levinstein, 1990 #12]
Team sport competition is collectively owned by the coalition. However, the individual sports generally consist of events that are owned by the event manager. An event manager may or may not have a relationship with a coalition. He or she will pay expenses; promote the competition; attract the athletes to play by offering prize money, appearance fees, trophies or medals, and/or status; and sell television and sponsorship rights. Event management has recently become a business in its own right. You can hire a sports management company to do all or part of the jobs associated with the event—from running the event itself, to selling the TV rights, to finding corporate sponsorship.

Individual sports event promoters do not have to cooperate with one another to produce a good product. Many 10K runs and triathlons, for instance, are one-shot deals. However, it is frequently more profitable to package several independent events together. The Grand Slam in tennis (the French, Australian, U.S. Open, and Wimbledon) is a case in point. These are four separate tennis events owned and operated by different entities that are marketed as a series. Another example is the PGA TOUR, which links thirty-six different golf tournaments together. In 1986 and 1987 boxing linked several individual fights into a tournament-style playoff. The idea here was to increase familiarity and interest in boxing.

There are several advantages to this type of event grouping.
- It is attractive to advertisers and sponsors since this provides them access to a circuit of events permitting them to develop a long term and consistent advertising campaign strategy
- It is more economical for the event manager who is searching for potential sponsors and TV companies. One sales representative can sell several events in the series. This means that the tournament directors of each event do not have to make those same calls.
- Television producers prefer a series, since programming becomes more consistent and familiar to audiences when a sport is broadcast at the same time each week.
- Although there are no data to prove it, a circuit of events culminating in an end-of-season championship seems to generate greater fan interest.
- It is easier for television producers to market the entire series to
Cooperation reduces market competition. Events can be scheduled on different dates, thereby reducing the competition for athletes, television time, and media attention.

**The Participant Side**
The athletes as the physical assets of the physical contest. They consist of three types: Recreational, amateur and professional

- **Focus is recreational**
- **Fairly low level of skill**

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Recreational</th>
<th>Amateur</th>
<th>Professional</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Focus is entertainment</td>
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<td>High level of skill</td>
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Recreational athletes engage in a specific sport (and sometimes several sports) solely as a pastime. This group may or may not participate in structured events and are especially important to the sport equipment segment of the sports industry. The public health sector is also interested in encouraging growth in recreational sports participation. Unless the citizens of a nation are physically active medical care costs increase dramatically. Physical exercise contributes to better health and consequently a reduced need for medical care.

Amateur athletes participate for the purpose of developing their skill to a point where they are competitive on a national or international level. Their purpose at this stage is not to make a living from the sport—just to compete at the highest level possible (although some do make substantial sums of money). This group is generally supported by custodian coalitions. There is considerable financial return to the sport organization and to the related coalition if they can package these athletes for corporate sponsors, television audiences or advertisers. They have a “pure” image associated with them that has considerable commercial value.

Professional athletes receive open and direct compensation for their competitive performance either by way of a salary or prize money. The United States has probably developed the professional dimension to the most profitable level than any other country in the world. However, other countries, even smaller population countries like New Zealand, are now focusing much more attention on strengthening up their professional dimension. The main problem faced by some coalitions who have, in the
past, dealt with recreational or amateur athletes, is how to go about strengthening their professional dimension without weakening the other two. The professional dimension tends to draw media attention, dollars and other support away from the recreational and amateur dimensions.

Although we make the theoretical distinction among these three types of athletes, the difference between amateur and professional athletes is often difficult to determine. Some amateur athletes make a substantial income, which they place into a trust account for living expenses. There is also a blurring in the entertainment versus skill development distinction between amateur and professional athletes. We consider college football players amateurs, although their prime function is quite frequently entertainment.

From a promoter’s standpoint, superior athletic performance affects team sports and individual sports differently. A superior individual performance on a team does not necessarily guarantee team victory. Fans often overlook a superb individual performance if the team loses. In individual sports, however, the best athlete usually wins and gets all the credit. Within one team talent may range from superstar to average. In the major sports like football and men’s basketball all have the ability to earn a living, but in an individual sport the average athlete has less opportunity to earn a decent living. Consequently, most individual sports revolve around a smaller number of athletes. Whereas you see more specialization in team sports, individual sports require more all-round talent. In track, for example, the best starter out of the blocks cannot win the race unless the runner is also fast overall. A tennis player with the best serve, a golfer with the best putt, or the heavyweight boxer with the best uppercut will not succeed unless he or she is also one of the best overall performers.

Finally, a spectator’s attendance at team events does not depend upon whether or not the superstar is playing. A superstar often enhances fan interest, but the team is generally the prime focus of attention. In contrast, fans tend to go to individual sporting events to watch specific individual athletes. A tennis match between two well-known tennis players, for example, will generally attract more spectator and television interest than a match between unknown players. A top name player is therefore more important to the success of individual sporting events than for team events. We will come back to the psychology of spectatorship in Chapter X.

**Athlete unions**

It is not uncommon for professional athletes to form their own collectives or unions that help counteract the power of the club or team owners. In some respects they are similar to the purpose of workers’ unions found in
the commercial sector, but they are not as easily defined as worker’s unions.

Athlete unions serve the needs of a very select group of employees. Yet, the membership has very diverse needs, and this feature distinguishes it from the typical trade union in the commercial sector. Superstars are mixed with the highly skilled non-superstars and these two groups face quite different problems. The collective must try to address the needs of all members while allowing room for the superstar to reap greater rewards. Athletes earning several hundred thousand dollars per year are not likely to care much about meal money, travel allowances, or pensions. These are, however, important concerns of athletes earning less money. The short working life of athletes means that their membership is constantly shifting, making it difficult to fight for perceived rights. Given the diversity and continual state of flux of membership, it is amazing that athletes’ collectives manage to survive at all.